Introduction to Random Numbers, Sampling, and MCMC Methods

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August 22, 2019

What is Sampling and why is it useful?

- Sampling is the practice of generating observations from a population
- Monte Carlo methods are algorithms that rely on repeated random sampling to obtain approximations where it is difficult or impossible to use deterministic approaches
 - Optimization
 - Numerical Integration
 - Sampling distributions

Application: Approximating π

Algorithm 1 Approximating π

Input: Batch Size N

1: Sample $u_1 \sim \text{Uniform}(0,1) \ N \text{ times}$

2: Sample $u_2 \sim \mathsf{Uniform}(0,1) \ \mathsf{N} \ \mathsf{times}$

3:
$$\tilde{\pi} = \frac{4}{N} \cdot \left| \left\{ (u_1, u_2) \mid \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2} < 1 \right\} \right|$$

Output: $\tilde{\pi}$

Application: Approximating π

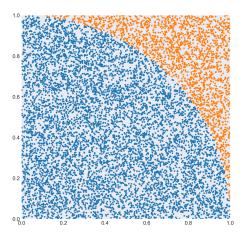
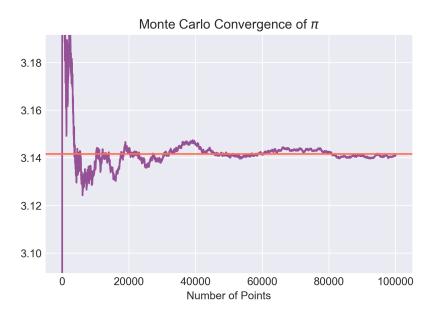


Figure: The ratio of points inside the unit circle approximates $\frac{\pi}{4}$

Application: Approximating π



What can we do with our samples?

- ▶ Integration: $\int p(x) f(x) dx \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{x_i \sim P} f(x_i)$
- Expectation: $\mu \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{x_i \sim P} x_i$
- Variance: $\sigma^2 \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{x_i \sim P} (x_i \mu)^2$
- ▶ Median: median \approx median $(x_1, x_2, ... x_n)$
- ► Entropy: $\mathbb{H}(P) \approx -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{x_i \sim P} \log p(x_i)$
- ► CDF: $p(c) \approx \frac{1}{n} |\{x_i | x_i \le c\}|$
- ▶ Conditional Distributions: $\{x_i \mid \Phi(x_i)\}$

Pseudo-Random Number Generators

Pseudo-Random Number Generators

- If we need random numbers, then how do we generate them?
- ▶ One solution: Pseudo-Random Number Generators
- Pseudo since they cannot simulate "true" randomness
- ▶ But can be replicated via "seeds"

Pseudo-Random Number Generators: LCG

Algorithm 2 Linear Congruential Generator

Input: Modulus m, Multiplier a, Increment c, Seed X_0

1: $X_{i+1} = (a \cdot X_i + c) \mod m$

Output: X_{i+1}

Pseudo-Random Number Generators

- LCGs are of low quality
- ► Not cryptographically secure
- Mersenne Twister (1998) improves upon many of the flaws of LCGs, and is the default for many modern-day languages

Inverse Transform Sampling

Generating a Normal from the CDF

- We can use the cumulative distribution function to sample any distribution
- For instance, a normal's CDF is:

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma\sqrt{2}}\right) \right]$$

With an Inverse CDF as:

$$F^{-1}(p) = \mu + \sigma\sqrt{2} \cdot \text{erf}^{-1}(2p-1)$$

ightharpoonup erf(x) is the error function, defined as:

$$\operatorname{erf}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$$

Inverse Transform Sampling

It's easy to generalize this method to any distribution with a closed-form inverse CDF

Algorithm 3 Inverse Transform Sampling

Input: Inverse CDF F^{-1}

1: Sample $u \sim \mathsf{Uniform}(0,1)$

2: $X = F^{-1}(u)$

Output: X

Inverse Transform Sampling: Intuition

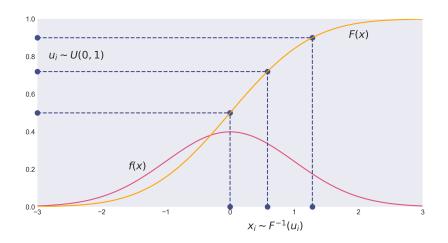


Table of Inverse CDFs for Common Distributions

Distribution	F(x)	$F^{-1}(p)$
$\mathcal{N}(\mu,\sigma)$	$rac{1}{2}\left[1+\operatorname{erf}\left(rac{x-\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{2}} ight) ight]$	$\mu + \sigma\sqrt{2} \cdot erf^{-1} \left(2p - 1\right)$
$\mathcal{U}(a,b)$	$\frac{x-a}{b-a}$	$a+p\cdot (b-a)$
$Exp(\lambda)$	$1 - e^{-\lambda x}$	$rac{-\ln(1-p)}{\lambda}$
$Logistic(\mu,s)$	$\frac{1}{1+e^{-\frac{x-\mu}{s}}}$	$\mu + s \ln \left(\frac{p}{1-p} \right)$

Inverse Transform Sampling: Disadvantages

- ► Inverse Transform Sampling fails when we cannot analytically integrate the PDF or invert the CDF!
- No closed form ICDF
 - t-distribution (also has a complicated CDF)
 - ► *F*-distribution
 - $\sim \chi^2$ -distribution
 - Gamma
 - Beta
 - Normal
- We can still approximate these functions using a Taylor Series Expansion

Rejection Sampling

Rejection Sampling

- ▶ What if we do not have a closed from CDF or ICDF?
- ▶ We can instead use Rejection Sampling!

Rejection Sampling: Algorithm

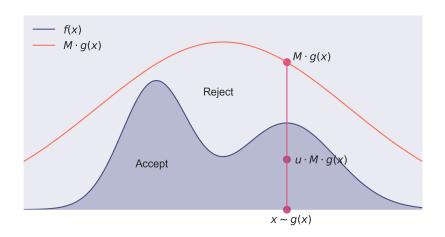
Algorithm 4 Rejection Sampling

Input: Model F, Proposal G, M > 1

- 1: Sample $x \sim G$
- 2: Sample $u \sim \mathsf{Uniform}(0,1)$
- 3: if $u < \frac{f(x)}{M \cdot g(x)}$ then
- 4: Accept x
- 5: **else**
- 6: Reject x
- 7: end if

Output: Accepted Samples

Rejection Sampling: Intuition



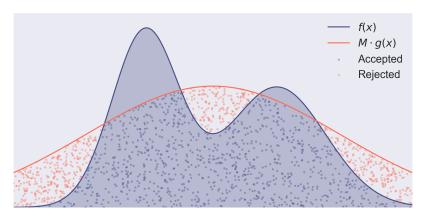


Figure: Rejection Sampling with M = 1.3

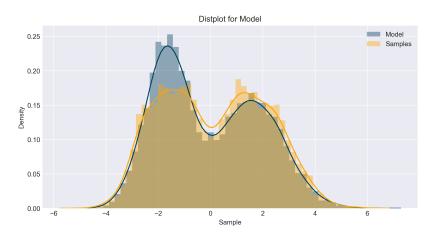


Figure: M = 1.3, 6,660 Accepted Samples

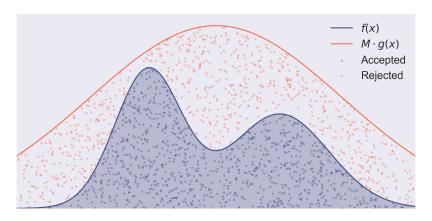


Figure: Rejection Sampling with M = 2.5

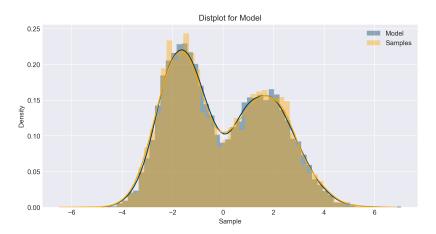


Figure: M = 2.5, 4,034 Accepted Samples

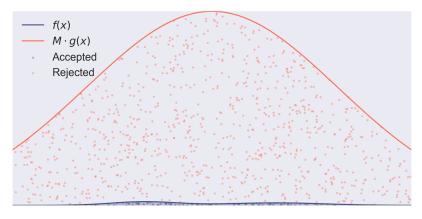


Figure: Rejection Sampling with M = 100

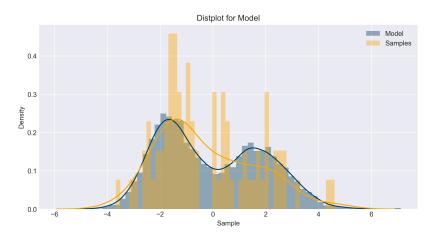


Figure: M = 100, 79 Accepted Samples

Rejection Sampling: Pros & Cons

- Pros:
 - ▶ Can be more efficient if the CDF is intractable
- ► Cons:
 - ► Tuning *M* can be difficult. Too high and we reject too many, too low and we under approximate our target
 - Very inefficient in higher dimensions

Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

What is MCMC?

- ▶ Idea: Construct a Markov chain whose stationary distribution is the target density of interest, f(x).
- ► The more steps we take in the chain, the better the approximation.
- This method works well with multi-dimensional continuous variables.

Metropolis-Hastings

Algorithm 5 Metropolis-Hastings Algorithm

```
Input: Model F, Proposal G
 1: Initialize xn
 2: for s = 0, 1, \dots do
      Sample x' \sim g(x'|x_s)
 3:
        Compute acceptance probability
 4.
        r = \min\left(1, \ \frac{f(x')}{f(x_s)} \frac{g(x_s|x')}{g(x'|x_s)}\right)
        Sample u \sim \text{Uniform}(0,1)
 5.
        if u < r then
 6:
            Accept x'
 7:
            Set x_{s+1} = x'
 8.
        else
 9:
            Reject x'
10.
            Set x_{s+1} = x_s
11.
        end if
12:
13: end for
Output: Accepted Samples
```

- ▶ Construct a Markov Chain where we propose a new state x' from the current state x_s with probability $g(x'|x_s)$.
- After drawing a proposal x' we calculate an acceptance probability, and if accepted, update the state to x', else stay at state x₅.

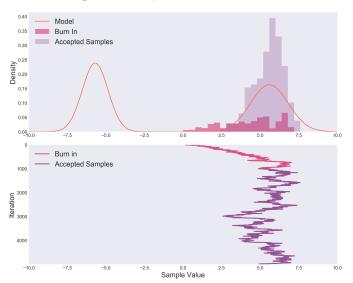


Figure: $\sigma^2 = 0.1$

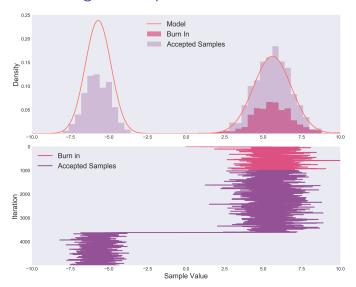


Figure: $\sigma^2 = 3$

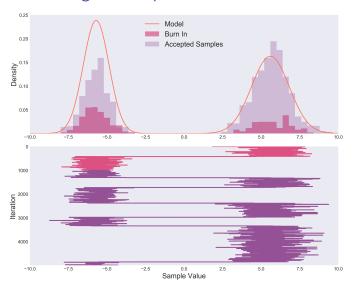


Figure: $\sigma^2 = 10$

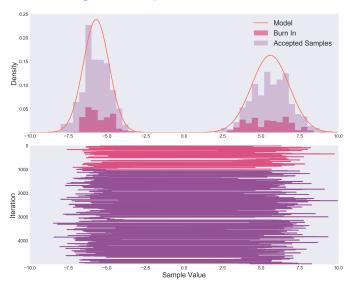


Figure: $\sigma^2 = 100$

Metropolis-Hastings: Key Terms to Know

- Acceptance Rates
 - Fraction of draws that are accepted
 - lacktriangleright High acceptance rate ightarrow bad mixing
 - lacktriangle Low Acceptance rate ightarrow inefficient
 - ► Theoretical rates: 44% for one dimension, 23.4% as the dimension goes to infinity
- Chains
- Burn In
 - Allows the chain to "forget" its starting values and converge on areas of high probability
- Mixing
 - Allowing the chains to fully explore the state space, instead of collapsing in one peak

Variants of Metropolis-Hastings

(Random Walk) Metropolis Algorithm

- ▶ Uses a symmetric proposal distribution G, such that $g(x_s|x') = g(x'|x_s)$
- Our acceptance probability r is then

$$r = \min\left(1, \frac{f(x')}{f(x_s)}\right)$$

Metropolis Adjusted Langevin Algorithm (MALA)

New states are proposed with Langevin dynamics

$$x' = x_s + \tau \nabla \log f(x_s) + \sqrt{2\tau} \xi_k$$

Proposal probabilities are normally distributed as

$$g(x'|x_s) \sim \mathcal{N}(x_s + \tau \nabla \log f(x_s), 2\tau I_d)$$

$$g(x_s|x') \sim \mathcal{N}(x' + \tau \nabla \log f(x'), 2\tau I_d)$$

▶ Optimal acceptance rate is 57.4%

Metropolis Adjusted Langevin Algorithm: Example

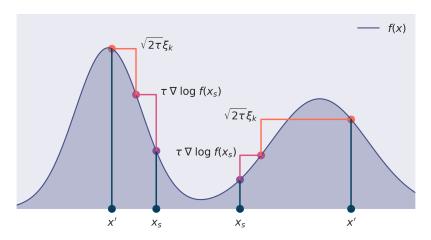


Figure: MALA: $\tau = 0.4$

Hamiltonian Monte Carlo

- Inspired by using a Hamiltonian dynamics evolution simulated using a time-reversible and volume preserving leapfrog integrator.
- ▶ Purpose was to reduce the correlation between successive sample states by proposing moves to distant states with high probability of acceptance.
- ▶ In simpler terms: flick a puck, wait, stop, then hit it again

Hamiltonian Dynamics

▶ For a system with state q, momentum p:

$$H(q, p) = U(q) + K(p)$$
 $U(q) = -\log f(q)$
 $K(p) = \sum_{i} \frac{p_i^2}{2}$

The time evolution of the system is defined by:

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q} = -\frac{\partial U(q)}{\partial q} \qquad \frac{dq}{dt} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p} = p$$

▶ We can update the system coordinates as follows (leapfrog):

$$q_{i+1} = q_i + \epsilon p_i$$
 $p_{i+1} = p_i - \epsilon \frac{\partial U(q_{i+1})}{\partial q_{i+1}}$

• Our acceptance probability for the current state (q_s, p_s) and candidate (q, p) is

$$r = \exp\left(H(q_s, p_s) - H(q, p)\right)$$



Hamiltonian Monte Carlo: Algorithm

Algorithm 6 HMC, Single Candidate Update

```
Input: Model F, Stepsize \epsilon, Leapfrog Steps L, Current State x_s
 1: Set q = q_s, p \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1), p_s = p
 2: p = p - \epsilon \frac{\partial U(q)}{\partial q} / 2
 3: for l = 0, 1, ..., L do
 4: q = q + \epsilon \cdot p
 5: p = p - \epsilon \frac{\partial U(q)}{\partial q} except at end of trajectory
 6: end for
 7: p = p - \epsilon \frac{\partial U(q)}{\partial q}/2
 8: p = -p to make proposal symmetric
 9: Compute acceptance probability
     r = \exp\left(U(q_s) - U(q) + K(p_s) - K(p)\right)
10: Sample u \sim \text{Uniform}(0,1)
11: if u < r then
         return q
12:
13: else
         return as
14:
15: end if
```

Hamiltonian Monte Carlo: The Leapfrog Path

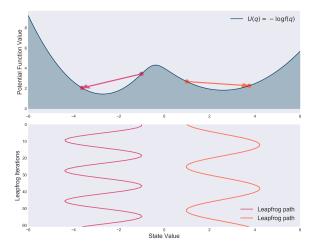


Figure: Leapfrog Paths: $\epsilon = 0.3$, L = 60

Hamiltonian Monte Carlo: Tampering to Overcome Energy Barriers

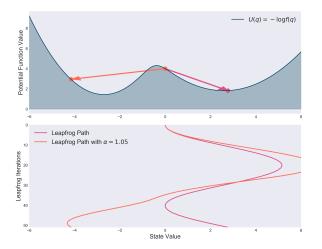


Figure: Leapfrog Paths: $\epsilon = 0.2$, L = 50, $\alpha = 1.05$

Hamiltonian Monte Carlo: Example

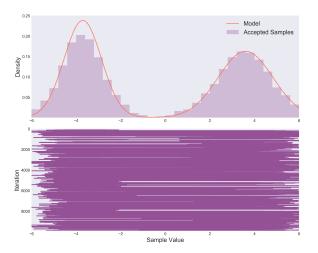


Figure: HMC: ϵ = 0.6, L = 40, α = 1.05, 100 burn in iterations, 10,000 epochs

Hamiltonian Monte Carlo: Considerations

- Distances between points are large, thus requiring less iterations
- Mostly accepts new states, more efficient even with the leapfrog "price"
- Tuning leapfrog steps can be difficult:
 - ▶ Small $L \rightarrow$ random walk behavior
 - ▶ Large L → wasted computation
- ► Has trouble sampling from distributions with isolated local minimums (lack of energy to cross the energy barrier)
- Optimal acceptance rate is 65%
- HMC Interactive Demo

No-U-Turn Sampler (NUTS)

- Removes the need to set the leapfrog step L in HMC
- Uses a recursive algorithm to build a set of likely candidate points
- As efficient as a well tuned HMC method

General Error Bounds

Analysis of Error

- ► How many samples *S* does it take to approximate the target distribution "well"?
- Answer: Use the Hoeffding bound

$$Pr(\hat{p}(x) \notin [p(x) - \epsilon, p(x) + \epsilon]) \le 2e^{-2S\epsilon^2}$$

▶ For the number of samples S, an error bound ϵ with probability $1 - \delta$, we can solve:

$$2e^{-2S\epsilon^2} \le \delta$$
$$S \ge \frac{\log(2/\delta)}{2\epsilon^2}$$

Analysis of Error

- We can also use the Chernoff Bound relative to the true value p(x)
- ▶ However, this is dependent on p(x), which is not always known.

$$Pr(\hat{p}(x) \notin [p(x)(1-\epsilon), p(x)(1+\epsilon)]) \le 2e^{-Sp(x)\epsilon^2/3}$$
$$S \ge 3\frac{\log(2/\delta)}{p(x)\epsilon^2}$$

Tools, References, and Further Reading

Libraries and Tools

- ► PyMC3
- ► TensorFlow Probability
- Pyro
- Stan
- RStan
- ► R mcmc

Refrences & Further Reading

- Machine Learning: A Probabilistic Perspective by Kevin Murphy
- Monte Carlo Methods in Financial Engineering by Paul Glasserman
- Probabilistic Graphical Models: Principles and Techniques by Daphne Koller and Nir Friedman
- Sampling Lecture from my PGM Professor Daniel Malinsky
- MCMC Using Hamiltonian Dynamics by Radford M. Neal
- Probabilistic Inference Using Markov Chain Monte Carlo Methods by Radford M. Neal
- Hamiltonian Monte Carlo Explained by Alex Rogozhnikov
- ► The Markov-chain Monte Carlo Interactive Gallery by Chi Feng
- ► The No-U-Turn Sampler by Hoffman and Gelman